LEADERSHIP STYLES: A REVIEW OF LITERATURE

By

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INTRODUCTION

The concept of leadership has facinated mankind for thousands of years. A sizable and growing body of literature deals with the topic of leadership, yet few social phenomena have resisted definitive treatment as persistently as this area has. Since Aristotle's assertion that leaders are born and not made (Gardner, 1974) up to the late 1940's, many attempts were made to find out who leaders are, what makes them leaders, and how they differ from an ordinary, common man.

With the failure of the personality trait approach and with the search for inborn qualities of leaders, emphasis in research shifted to the study of leadership behavior and situational factors within which individual operates. Even then, despite growing numbers of systematic research efforts, a great deal is still unknown; and, the interrelationship between leadership style and behavior, on the one hand, and situational factors, on the other, can not be precisely spelled out.

The review of literature presented in this paper is divided into three sections:

1. Definitions of Leadership
2. Major Leadership Theories
3. Other Research Classifications of Leadership Styles

Definitions of Leadership

The leadership concept appears to be a rather difficult one to define in concise terms. It is a rather complex area for investigation because it depends on the position, behavior, personal characteristics and character of the situation. There are a great variety of definitions of leadership in different studies. The following definitions of leadership are typical examples:

Among the earlier definitions of leadership is the one presented by Stogdill in 1950. He maintained that "leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an organized group toward goal setting and goal achievement" (p. 4). One year later, Good (1951, p. 313) gave the following definition: "Leadership is (1) the ability and readiness to inspire, guide, direct or manage others; (2) the role of interpreter of the interests and objectives of a group, the group recognition and accepting the interpreter as spokesman." Dubin, in 1961, contended that "leadership in an organization involves the excercise of authority and the making of decisions" (p. 348).

Hinsie and Campbell (1960, p. 1038) gave a definition couched in sociological terms: "the relation between an individual and a group built around some common interest and behavior in a manner directed or determined by him." In 1961, Etzioni viewed leadership in terms of "power based predominantly on personal characteristics, usually normative in nature" (p. 116). For Lipham (1961, p. 122) leadership is "the initiation of a new structure or procedure of accomplishing an organization's goals and objectives or for changing an organization's goals

and objectives." In the Same year Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massarik (1961, p. 24) defined leadership as "interpersonal influence, exercised in situation and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals."

Many other academic definitions have been formulated by researchers. In 1966, Katz and Khan maintained that "the essence of organizational leadership is the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization" (p. 302). A year later, Fiedler (1967, p. 8) focused on the leader as "the individual in the group given the task of directing and coordinating task-relevant group activities."

As others continued to explore the problems of leadership, ideas and definitions surfaced that elaborated on previous thoughts. Millet in 1976, for example, viewed leadership as "the exercise of the authority to recommend decision and it is having the status and prestige to ensure the probability that these recommendations will become law" (p. 10). In 1975, Baldridge spoke of leadership as "a central process/ strategy for stimulating change" (p. 280). In the same year Alfonso, Firth, and Neville defined leadership as "behavior that causes individuals to move toward goals they find to be important and that creates in the followers a feeling of well being" (Alfonso, Firth, Neville, 1975, p. 45).

Leadership, in 1980, was described by Kamm as "helping people to be and to become the best each is capable of being and becoming" (p. 37). A year later Miles' (1981, p. 1) definition of leader focused on "one who gets others to do something they would otherwise not do." Other definitions of leadership (Hershey and Blanchard, 1972; Boles,

1975; Hage, 1980; Giammatteo, 1981) are somehow similar to those mentioned above. Finally, Mitzel (1982, p. 1830) defined leadership as "interpersonal influence, exercised in situation and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals."

In summary, the numerous definitions of leadership suggest that there is little agreement as to the meaning of the concept. This is primarily because leadership depends on the position, behavior, personal characteristics of the leader, and the character of the situation.

Major Leadership Theories

Theories in leadership in this section are divided into two categories:

1. Single dimensional approach to leadership
2. Multidimensional approach to leadership

Single Dimensional Approach to Leadership

Trait Approach: The trait approach was the first attempt in constructing leadership theories. Until the 1950's many attempts had been made to identify character traits common to effective leader--great man approach.

This particular approach was not something new. For centuries leadership was in the nature of an inheretance. Leaders were born, not made. Between 1930 to 1950 however, a more systematic approach was undertaken to discover physical, mental, and personality traits common to all great leaders. Probably the best known survey of leadership

traits is that of Bird in 1940. He found seventy-nine traits mentioned in twenty different studies. Only five percent of these traits were common to four or more investigations (Bird, 1940).

A more comprehensive survey was conducted by Stogdill in 1948. After reviewing over 120 studies on personal traits, such as intelligence, originality, introversion versus extroversion, self-confidence, and sociability, he concluded that traits vary from one situation to another and from one group to the other. Stogdill (1948), however, categorized the "great man approach" literature into capability, achievement, responsibility, participation, and status studies. His conclusion was that, despite the conflicting results, traits were still important elements in determining leader effectiveness.

Subsequent studies of the relations between these personality traits and leadership completely failed to find any pattern of traits which would characterize leaders. Gouldner (1950), for example, pointed out that traits are seldom listed in any order of importance, traits attributed to effective and ineffective leaders are not necessarily exclusive, and that the same traits function differently for different individuals.

The search, however, is still underway for a set of common traits which all leaders must possess in order to be effective. In particular, the study of leader traits by social psychologists continues unabated. The difference here lies in the fact that personality traits are no longer treated as inborn characteristics inherited by the individual. For example, one typical investigation found the relationship between a leader's intelligence and a leader's performance ratings to be

dependent on such variables as behavioral style and experience.

Situational Approach: The situational approach was the second step in leadership theory construction. It was a reaction to the "trait approach" theory. One of the first situational theories was generally acknowledged as the "machine model". The primary objective of the "machine theory" was to maximize efficiency of the situation.

According to Gibb (1954) the situational approach to the study of leadership involved four elements:

> . . . the situation includes: (1) the structure of interpersonal relations within a group, (2) group or syntality characteristics such as those defined by the group dimensions already discussed, (3) characteristics of the total culture in which the group exists and from which group members have been drawn, and (4) the phsysical conditions and the task with which the group is confronted (p. 879).

As it can be seen, the emphasis here was put on finding the universal characteristics of all possible situations and thereby enable the individual to perform his leadership role effectively. As such, this approach resembled Weber's ideal bureaucratic model. Although a short-lived theory, situational approach according to Hoy and Miskel (1978) indicated that situational factors were as important as personality factors in determining leadership effectivenss.

Multidimensional Approach

The multidimensional approach supported at least two distinct categories of leader behavior. This approach, often referred to as the dual leadership model, consisted of two independent dimensions: concern

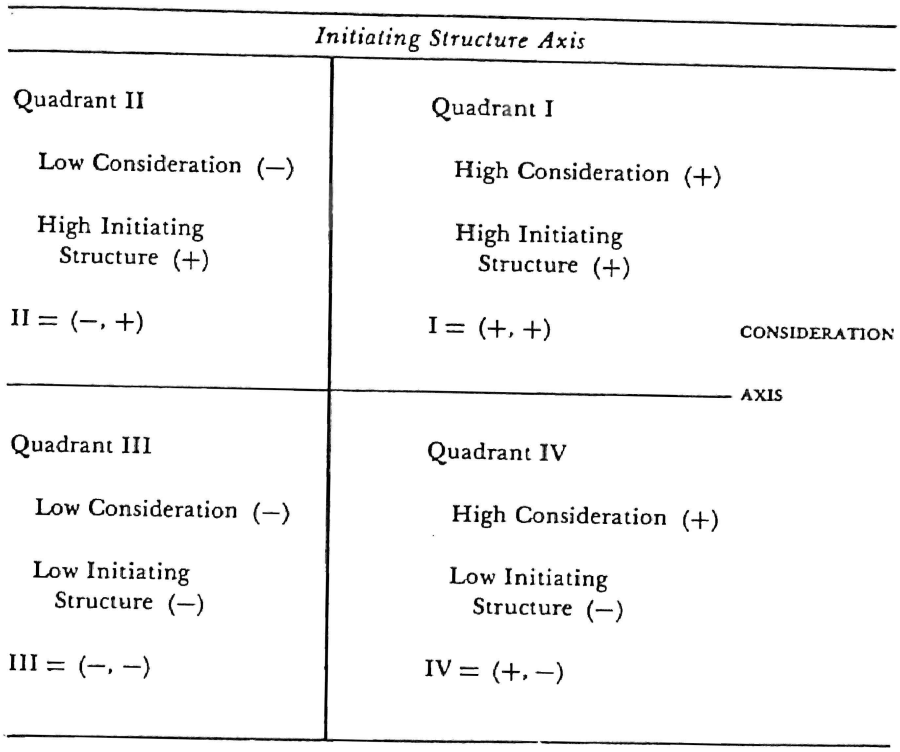
for the people, and concern for the task. The former dimension was associated with the human relations movement of the 1930's, and the latter came from the school of scientific management.

The emergence of multidimensional models was initiated with Barnard in 1938, who defined the effectiveness of leaders in terms of their relation to the accomplishment of the cooperative goals of organization which are socially imposed and are nonpersonal in character. Efficiency was defined in terms of the leader's relation to the satisfaction of individual motives and is personal in character. "the test of effectiveness is the accomplishment of common purpose or purposes; the test of efficiency is the eliciting of sufficient individual will to cooperate" (Barnard, 1938, p. 60).

In late 1940's a series of investigations known as the Ohio State Leadership Studies was carried out by Hemphill and Coons (1950), and later by Halpin and Winer (1952), and Halpin (1956, 1966). A very well known and now widely used questionnaire called Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) was just one outcome of these studies. These studies were responsible not only for a variety of significant findings on leadership, but also responsible for the most important contribution of isolating the two basic dimensions of leadership behavior in formal organizations--"initiating structure" and "consideration." These variables were identified as a result of a series of studies that attempted to determine, through factor-analytic procedures, the smallest number of dimensions that adequately described leader behavior as perceived by the leader and his subordinates.

It was during the early Ohio State Leadership Studies that leader-

ship was first plotted on two separate axes as opposed to being on a single continuum.



Source: Hoy and Miskel (1978, p. 183).

Figure 1. Quadrants Formed by Using the LBDQ Dimensions

"Initiating structure" refers to leader behavior through which the leader defines and structures his roles and those of subordinates in search for goal attainment. This is done through planning, communicating

information, criticizing, initiating ideas, emphasizing deadlines, defining roles, assigning tasks, and pushing for direction.

"Consideration" is the extent to which the leader tries to establish rapport with the employees, respect subordinates' ideas, and care for their feelings. This dimension included mutual trust, two-way communication, warmth and understanding, and genuine concern for group members' needs.

At about the same time the Ohio State researchers were studying leadership behavior, a similar study was undertaken by the University of Michigan's Survey Research Center. These studies--conducted by Katz, Maccoby, and Morse (1950)--resulted in many similar findings.

The purpose of this project was to investigate the relationship between supervisory behavior and employee productivity and satisfaction. The earlier studies primarily dealt with business and industrial organizations, such as the Prudential Life Insurance Company. The strategy was to use company accounting procedures to identify high-producing and low-producing groups which were evidently equal in ability and background. The supervisory practices associated with the high and low producing groups was the prime target of these investigations. The University of Michigan group identified two styles of leadership behavior: "production oriented" and "employee oriented."

Production oriented leaders spent less time in actual supervisory practices such as planning, but more time controlling the activities, punishing mistakes made by the subordinates, and performing tasks similar to those of subordinate. Employees of production oriented leaders tended to feel as if they were treated only as instruments of

production and therefore responded with poor performance. This dimension corresponded to the "initiating structure" in Ohio State University Studies.

"Employee oriented" leaders emphasized interpersonal relations, spent more time in actual supervisory activities, used general rather than close supervision, took a personal interest in employees and their goals, accepted individual differences among members, and were less punishing when mistakes were made. Subordinates of "employee oriented" leaders felt that their supervisor took a personal interest in them, let them know how they were doing on the job, and would support them whenever needed. This was similar to the "consideration" dimension of the Ohio State University Studies.

Earlier studies of the University of Michigan treated employee-oriented and production-oriented dimensions of leadership as two opposite ends of a single continuum. Later studies, however, indicated that although these two dimensions were independent, they could occur simultaneously.

Many other studies resulted in the same two basic dimensions. Getzel and Guba (1957) used "nomethetic" and "ideographic" labels to indicate the concern for organizational tasks and individual relationship dimensions. Similarly, Etzioni (1961), expanding on the work of Parsons, argued that every human organization must meet two sets of primary needs. "Instrumental needs" must be met for the task achievement purposes through mobilization of resources, and "expressive needs" must be dealt with in order to bring about the social and normative integration of group members.

Stogdill (1963, 1974) supported the two general categories of leader behavior. He and his associates, however, proposed that these two general dimensions, which they called "system-oriented" and "person-oriented", consisted of twelve factors. The system-oriented dimension consisted of six factors of production emphasis, initiation of structure, representation, role assumption, persuasion, and superior orientation. The person-oriented dimension consisted of tolerance of freedom, tolerance of uncertainty, consideration, demand reconciliation, predictive accuracy, and integration factors.

The Harvard studies of leadership behavior have suggested two separate dimensions. These studies, primarily concentrating on small problem-solving task groups, presented two separate leadership roles (Bales, 1969). The "task leader" kept the group engaged in the performance of task, while the "social leader" was interested in maintaining group unity and in keeping group members aware of their importance as unique individuals whose special needs and values were respected.

Other theorists and researchers have used different labels refering to the same dual aspects of leader behavior. Even when more than two dimensions are proposed, it is possible to collapse them into the two basic dimensions of leadership. One such study, for example, is that of Bowers and Seashore (1966), who presented four dimensions of support, interaction facilitation, goal emphasis, and work facilitation. The first two, however, correspond to the "employee-oriented" dimension, and the last two, to the "production-oriented" dimension of leadership behavior of the University of Michigan Studies.

In summary, most of the leadership theories had two points in

common. First, they identified two basic dimensions of leadership which led to the identification of four basic leadership styles (Figure 2). Second, although different studies have used different sets of terms in reference to these dimensions (Likert, 1967; Reddin, 1970; Astin, 1980; Ludewig, 1983), they are basically presenting the same thing.

As it was mentioned earlier, although the two dimensions of leadership are independent, they are not mutually exclusive. In fact, very rarely one can find a full-proof task or people-oriented leader. Figure 2 illustrates how the combination of two basic dimensions can result in four different leadership styles. Here again, despite disagreement on terminology, the basic idea presented by Figure 2 is widely accepted by researchers.

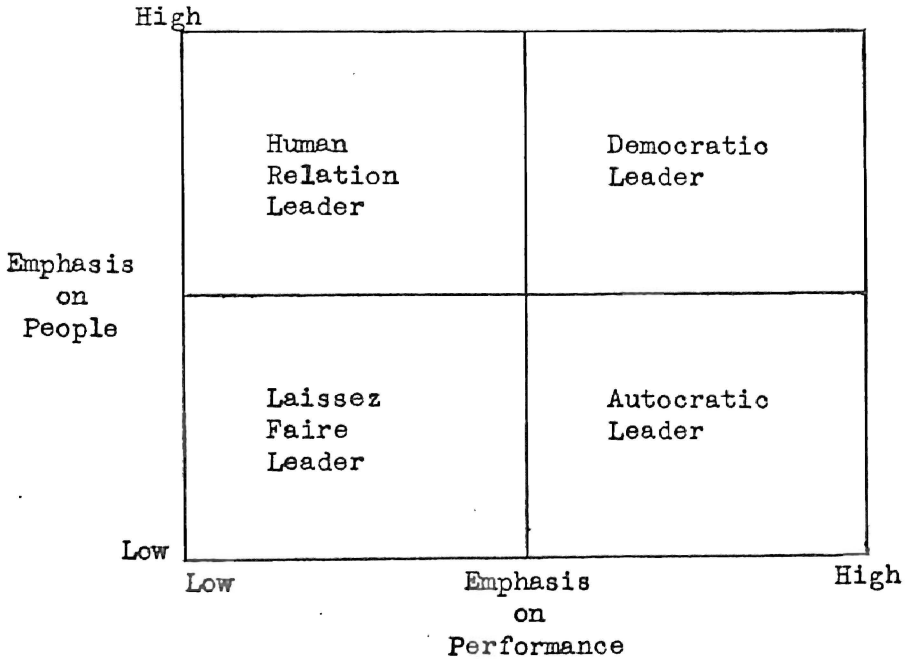


Figure 2. Four Basic Leadership Styles

1. Human Relation Leaders: the basic assumption is that people are honest, trustworthy, self-motivated, and have a desire to be involved in organizational affairs. The leader believes that satisfied and productive workers emerge only in a participative, permissive, and supportive work environment. Since the leader's main concern is for the needs and welfare of subordinates, he/she relies on teamwork, human relations, participative decision-making, and good harmony and fellowship to get the job done.

While this style of leadership may result in satisfied workers, there is very little evidence that there is any direct relationship between employee satisfaction and high productivity. In fact, past research has indicated that preoccupation with keeping people satisfied and involved would have negative results on high achievement (Stogdill, 1974). Furthermore, this style of leadership often results in the loss of respect for the leader and the emergence of informal leaders. Goal-oriented individuals are very much frustrated in such an environment.

2. Autocratic Leaders: as opposed to the human relation leader, the autocratic leader puts high emphasis on performance and low emphasis on people. A leader in this category believes that people are basically lazy, irresponsible, and untrustworthy. Therefore, all or almost all decisions must be made by the leader. Employee involvement and input should be kept to a bare minimum and leader must devote his time to planning, organizing, controlling the activities within the organization. He relies heavily on authority, control, power, manipulation, and hard work to get the job done.

This style of leadership often creates antagonism and restricts

output despite the emphasis on high productivity. It tends to breed hostility, distorted and guarded communications, low morale, poor productivity and work quality, high absenteeism and turnover, and preoccupation with rules and regulations rather than getting the job done. Another consequence of this particular style is development of dependency and uncreative behavior for the fear of reprisals by the leader in case something goes wrong.

3. Laissez Faire Leader: the leader in this category gives low priority to both performance and people. Individual behavior is left up to the individual , and, in essence, the leader abdicates his leadership role. The laissez faire leader assumes that people are unpredictable and uncontrollable and, at the same time, should be left alone as much as possible. He believes in keeping a low profile, staying out of trouble, and doing just enough to get by.

As a result of this style of leadership, apathy, disinterest, and resentment of the organization and the leader increases rapidly. Productivity and satisfaction of employees under this type of leader is the lowest of all leadership styles.

4. Democratic Leader: both performance and people are the primary foci of the democratic leader. His basic assumption is that people work hard to accomplish challenging work and meaningful goals, they are trustworthy, and most are honest. He works hard to create a challenging work environment, he is well-organized and strives to get the job done through motivating and managing individuals and groups to use their full potential in achieving personal as well as organizational objectives.

Utilizing democratic leadership results in participative decision-

making and involvement in the affairs of organization. Consequently, the need for control and enforcement of rules and regulations decreases. It also produces high employee productivity, morale, cooperation, and commitment. Subordinates of a democratic leader are willing to give their best, to get involved in innovative activities, to communicate openly, and to accept responsibility. Furthermore, this style resulted in low absenteeism and turnover.

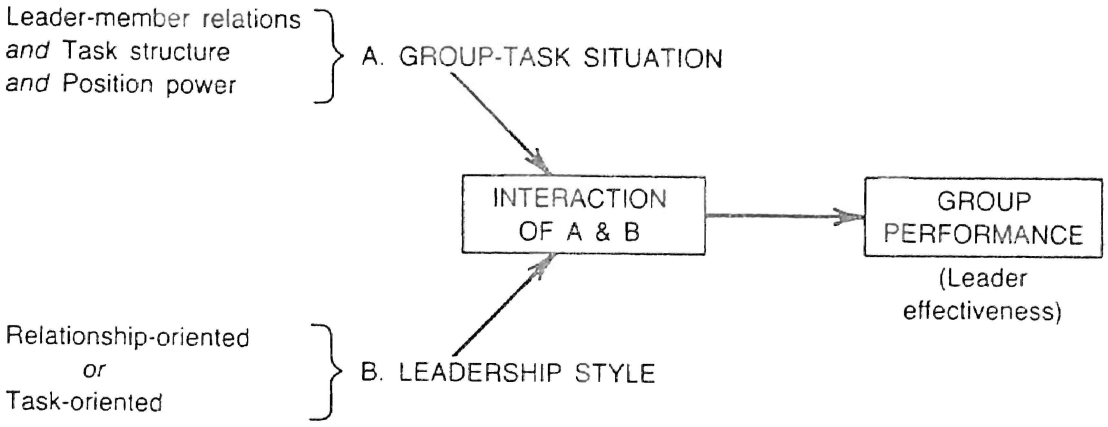
Contingency Model: As a result of an extensive research project on the effectiveness of different leadership styles in different situations by Fiedler (1967), the contingency theory of leadership was developed. The first step in understanding this theory is to differentiate between "behavior" and "style." Fiedler, for the first time, brought the term "style" into play referring to the leader's motivational system. In other words, it refers to the underlying leader attitudes that motivate behavior in various leadership situations. Behavior, on the other hand, refers to the specific behavior of a leader while in the process of directing and controlling the activities of a work unit (Fiedler, 1967).

Fiedler's contingency model consists of two styles of leadership. the "task-oriented" leader concentrates on tasks and their successful accomplishment by group members. The "relation-oriented" leader is more concerned with the interpersonal relationship and successful interaction with group members.

Fiedler's main argument is that the effectiveness of a leader depends on the favorableness and unfavorableness of the situation. The "task-oriented" leader is more effective when the situation is very

favorable or very unfavorable. The "relation-oriented" leader is more effective in situations of intermediate favorability.

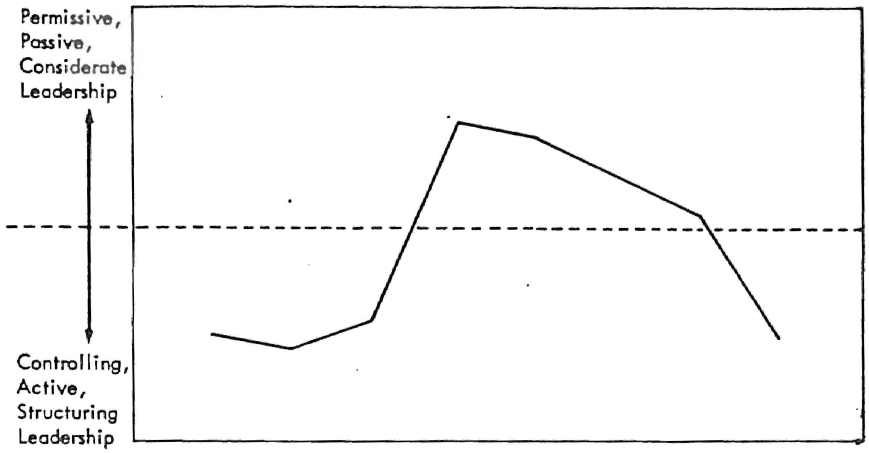
The commonly acknowledged determinants of favorability are leader-member relations, task structure, and position power. The first variable , leader-member relations, measures leader's feelings of being accepted by the group, whether he gets along well with the group, and whether they hold him in high regard. Task structure measures the degree of routineness of the job. The more structured a task is, the more favorable the situation for the leader. Structured task makes it easy for the leader to determine methods of task accomplishment and goal achievement. Finally, position power is the degree of influence a leader has over power variables such as hiring, firing, discipline, promotion, and salary increases (Fiedler, 1967).



Source: Silver (1983, p. 158).

Figure 3. Basic Contingency Model

After studying over 1,200 groups including basketball teams, military combat groups, steel furnace crews, and boards of directiors, Fiedler proposed the following graph:



Leader-Member Relations	Good	Good	Good	Good	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor
Task Structure	Structured		Unstructured		Structured		Unstructured	
Leader Position Power	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak

Source: Fiedler (1967, p. 176).

Figure 4. How Style of Effectiveness Varies with the Situation

As the figure shows, "task-oriented" leaders perform better in a very favorable or unfavorable situation. This is indicated by the left and right side of the curve which fall below the dotted line. Leaders with "people-orientation" perform better in the moderate situation

(above the dotted line).

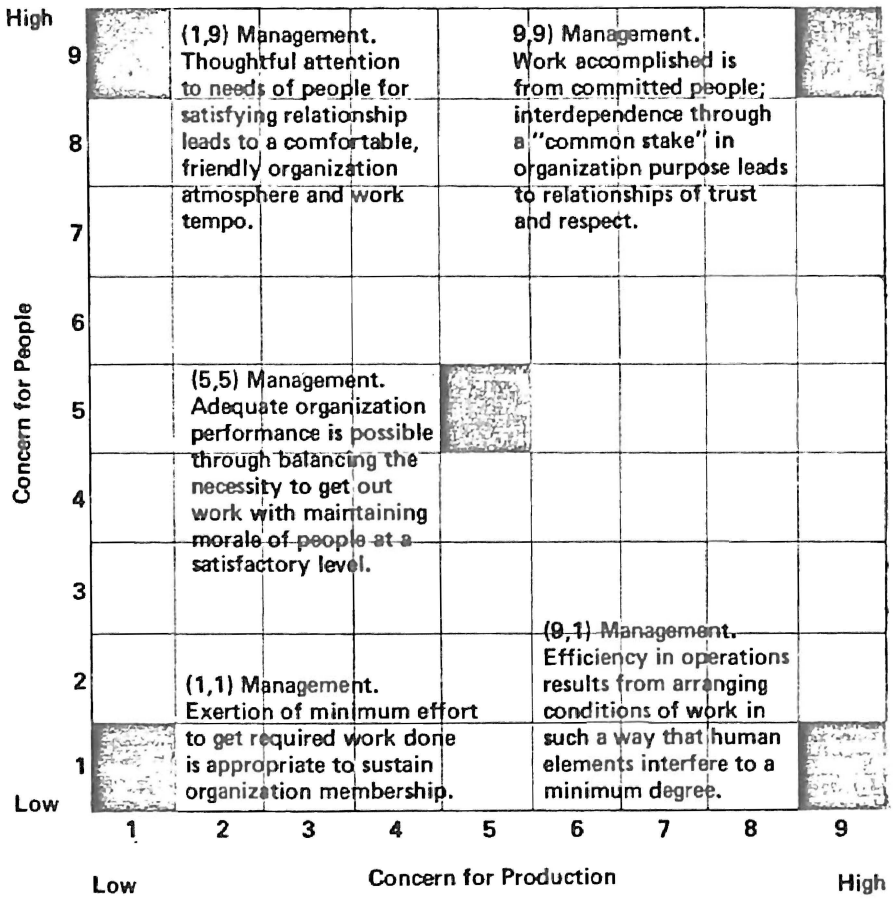
The contingency model is not without its critics. Kabanoff (1981) criticized Fiedler's model for not taking into account the leader's knowledge and influence over the employee relationship and task structure. The model has also been criticized for the small sample size and unwarrented generalizations. The greatest contribution, however, "may be in the direction it has taken leadership research, rather than in any specific answers that it provides" (Robbins, 1979, p. 250).

Managerial Grid: the managerial grid model developed by Blake and Mouton (1964 and 1978) was a transitional theory between leadership style theories and contingency theories. The theory states that organizations have several universal characteristics. First, all organizations have a sense of purpose or goal. Second, all organizations consist of people responsible for accomplishing the goals. Third, all organizations have a hierarchy of authority--subordinates and superordinates. Different leaders have different attitudes about using their hierarchical position in interconnecting the people element with the task accomplishment.

As Figure 5 shows, the horizontal axis of the managerial grid represents "concern for production" while the vertical axis represents "concern for relationship." The grid has nine possible positions along each axis, creating eighty-one different positions in which the leader's style may fall. On each axis, 1 represents a minimum of task and people orientation and 9 a maximum of each.

According to Blake and Mouton, the 9,9 manager, or the one with high concern for both task and people, is the most desirable one. They

stress, however, that this 9,9 approach to management can not be achieved without the systematic development and improvement of the organization. They also point out that although it seems hardly possible that a manager could disregard both dimensions (1,1), some actually do.



Source: Blake and Mouton (1964, p. 10)

Figure 5. The Managerial Grid

The integral leader (9,9) is able to integrate both people and task successfully. Leaders in this category are rare.

The country club leader (1,9) gives a considerable attention to people but almost no concern for the task. His major attempt is to win friends. The basic assumption here is that needs of production are contrary to the needs of people.

The task oriented leader (9,1) is only concerned about goal achievement and tries to minimize interference by the human element. Interaction is only along authority lines and the employees are treated only as instruments of production.

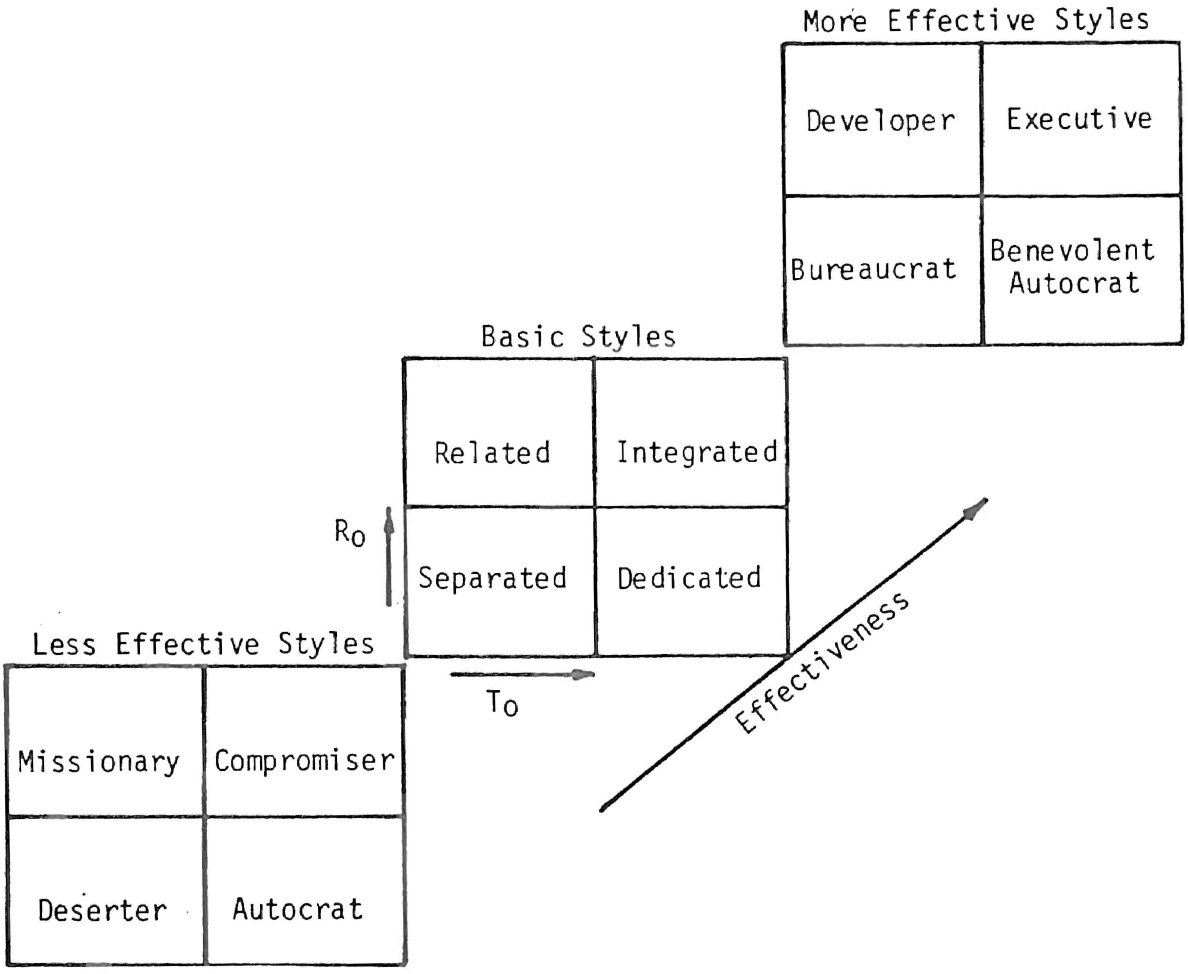
The impoverished leader (1,1) is little concerned with people or production. This style of leader is basically uninvolved and very conspicuous for the lack of leadership activity.

The middle-of-the-road leader (5,5) is usually a firm but fair organizational man. He is marked with mediocracy and he tries to approach conflict through compromise.

The managerial grid approach to organizational development is widely used. The effectiveness of the approach, however, has not been studied thoroughly. This is probably due to its comprehensive and long-term nature. As DuBrin (1974) pointed out, however, this approach is very helpful for two main reasons: first, it forces management to examine carefully its own organizational problems; and second, because it is based on established group dynamic theory.

Three-Dimensional Theory: this theory, developed by Reddin in 1970, adds a third factor to the original task and people-oriented leadership styles. By presenting the effectiveness dimension, Reddin provides a

means of evaluating the appropriateness of specific leadership style in a given situation. The basic assumption is that no one leadership style is good or bad in itself. Situational factors like followers, technology, and organizational climate, have important roles in determining whether a particular style is effective or not.



Source: Reddin (1970, p. 4).

Figure 6. Three Dimensional Model

As it can be seen in Figure 5, "task-orientation" is placed on an horizontal axis and "relationship-orientation" on a vertical axis, resulting in four styles. By adding effectiveness, eight more styles emerge which correspond to the four basic styles. For example, "executive" and "compromiser" are two different aspects of "integrated" style of leadership. In other words, the "executive" is a leader who utilizes both task and relationship orientation in a situation where such a behavior is appropriate, while the "compromiser" utilizes both orientations in a situation where only one or neither is required. The first style, "executive," is more-effective as opposed to "compromiser" which is less-effective.

According to Reddin, effectiveness of the leader can be enhanced by training him to diagnose the situations accurately and thereby apply the approperiate style to each situation encountered. The label of "style flex" is an assumption of the theory that a leader is indeed able to alter his/her style.

Other Classifications of Leadership Styles

Industrial studies by Likert and his associates (1967) have identified three types of variables--causal, intervening, and end result. These variables differentiate the more effective organizations from the less effective ones. Their studies at the Institute for Social Research at the University of Michigan resulted in the Likert Management Theory.

According to this theory, managing the human component of the organization is the most important task.because everything else depends on how well this task is accomplished.

The Likert's classification of leadership ranged on a continuum from System 1 to System 4. In System 1, which is exploitative and authoritarian, the leader has little confidence in subordinates. Decisions are made at the top and coersion, threat, and rigid control are used to force subordinates to work.

At the other end of the continuum, the leader has almost complete trust and confident in subordinates. System 4, being a participative approach, emphasizes a widely dispersed decision-making process throughout the organization. This is the most effective leadership style because, according to Likert, all of the social forces within the organization support the efforts to achieve the goals of the organization. System 2, the benevolent authoritative style, and System 3, the consultative style, fall between these two extremes.

An instrument deviced by Likert to measure leadership style and levels of productivity is called the "Profile of Organizational and Performance Characteristics." This is a 60-item scale which has gained wide acceptance as a diognostic device, as well as an instrument measuring change in different institutions.

In 1980, as a result of a five-year intensive study of faculty, students, and administrators in private liberal art colleges, Astin and Scherrei (1980) developed two typologies. The first typology proposed four presidential styles based on the information gathered from faculty and top administrators. The styles in this typology are:

1. The bureaucrat; described as remote, ineffective, open, and not efficient.

2. The intellectual; described as intellectual and faculty's man.

3. The egaliterian; described as not authoritarian.

4. The counselor; described as enterpreneurial.

The second typology, or that of college administration, was very similar to the one proposed for the presidents. Five administrative styles were:

1. Hierarchial administrator: has personal ambition and ready to climb the ladder.

2. Humanistic administrator: has interpersonal skills, is not competetive, not influenced by those in power, and is not willing to apple-polish.

3. Enterpreneurial administrator: is aggressive, frank, a risk taker, and not scholarly oriented.

4. Insecure administrator: is interested in nepotism or "bodyism," has willingness to apple-polish, is not effective in dealing with students, does not take initiative, does not get support from faculty, and is not cooperative.

5. Task-oriented administrator: takes initiative, has creativity, has professional or technical competence, is creative and aggresive.

Another classification of leadership styles is that of Ludewig (1983). He developed an interesting and provocative classification system consisting of four administrative styles. This was a result of information gathered through a ten-item questionnaire asking the respondents to place "1" for the best alternative, "2" for the second best characteristics of style, "3" for the third best characteristics of style, and "4" for the least desirable characteristics.

While emphasizing that rarely any administrator fits totally within

the parameters of one style, he identified the styles as:

1. The Artful Dodger, who does not have ambitions, avoids failure, and seeks only to be left alone;

2. The Commander-in-Chief, who is convinced that he has the best perception of any situation and that his solution is the right one;

3. Leader of the Pack, who firmly believes in team work and democratic management;

4. The Facilitative Master, who is humble, yet self-confident. He speaks well but listens better.

Finally, Sergiovannie (1984, pp. 6-9) in his latest article, proposed five leadership styles:

1. The Technical leader assumes the role of "management engineer."

2. The Human leader assumes the role of "human engineer."

3. The Symbolic leader assumes the role of the "chief" and, by emphasizing selective attention (the modeling of important goals and behaviors), signals to others what is of importance and value.

4. The Educational leader assumes the role of "clinical practitioner" bringing expert professional knowledge and bearing as they relate to teaching effectiveness, educational program development, and clinical supervision.

5. The Cultural leader assumes the role of "high priest," seeking to define, strengthen, and articulate those enduring values, beliefs, and cultural strands that give the school its unique identity.

In summary, despite the fact that there are few theories as heavily studied as the leadership style theories, and despite a variety of labels used in reference to each style, some common charac-

teristics exist that are worth mentioning.

Leadership style characteristics explain the emphasis the leader places on task accomplishment and interpersonal relationship. Each style, at least by implication, is based on the leader's assumptions about these two dimensions.

Almost all typologies present the democratic style as the most, and the autocratic style as the least effective leadership style possible, with two or more intermediate styles in between. As a result, other organizational factors such as the formal and informal structure, nature of communication, level of motivation, and level of conflict, are completely ignored. The assumption is that by employing the "best style" all other problems are going to be resolved.

Practitioners in the field, however, think otherwise. It is true that the leadership style approach has its own merit in understanding leadership processes, but, this is not the whole answer. The answer lies in an integrated theory of leadership that can take style as well as other trait, personality, and situational factors into account.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Early studies of leadership focused on characteristics of the individual. Attempts were made to determine if certain traits of personality, intelligence, physique, or perception were either necessarily associated with those who lead or could be used to distinguish those who might become leaders.

Disappointed by their search for traits of the leaders, researchers took a variety of directions, usually emphasizing the leader's behavior or the types of situations in which leaders function. Later they sought to identify particular styles of leadership. The Ohio State, Michigan State, Harvard University studies; studies of such concepts as "Contingency model", "Managerial grid", and "Three Dimensional theory", and numerous other studies were all attempts to a better understanding of leadership phenomena.

Evidence from research in the last few years has clearly indicated that there is no single, all-purpose leadership style. Perhaps it is more important that one have "style" rather than simply "a style" (Miller, 1983). Or as Steinmetz (1975) put it "why not go for multicrat: develop a range of styles for a range of situations."

There are, no doubt, variables other than a leader's style that affect employee performance and satisfaction. Certainly, job challenge and interest, organizational working conditions and work climate, opportunities for growth and advancement, and peer relations (among

other factors) should be considered. The exact proportions of this mix, however, still remains a mystery, and only additional research can unravel the mystery of the leadership phenomena.

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